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Direct and Indirect Links Between Organizational Work-Home Culture and Employee Well-Being

Abstract

The extent to which an organization's culture exhibits support for its employees' efforts to balance work and personal responsibilities has been shown to influence a number of work- and home-related outcomes. This study tests a model with a mix of mediated and moderated relationships to investigate direct and indirect routes by which work-home culture may affect employee well-being. Sex differences in these relationships are also explored. Data collected from public sector employees in the UK indicate that a supportive work-home culture is significantly associated with lower levels of psychosomatic strain among employees. For women, this relationship is mediated by reduced levels of work-home interference. Different types of support demonstrate different effects for men and for women: managerial support has a more beneficial impact on women's well-being, and organizational time demands have a more detrimental impact on men's well-being. Recommendations for managers to boost employee well-being include shifting the focus away from presenteeism and toward work outputs in order to reduce gender stereotypes and improve attitudes toward those using flexible work practices and family-friendly initiatives, incorporating work-home supportiveness into the managerial performance appraisal process, and compensating or otherwise recognizing employees taking on absent colleagues' workloads.

Keywords:

Strain; work-family culture; work-home interference; work-family conflict

Over the last twenty years, the intersection of paid work and home life has received an increasing amount of attention in both the academic and popular press. The tendency towards longer working hours for much of the labour force in the UK and North America (Brannen, 2000; Duxbury and Higgins, 2001), along with escalating numbers of dual-income families and employed single parents (Office for National Statistics, 2007), creates increasing opportunities for multiple roles to clash with one another. The negative effects of such interference between work and home have been well-documented, and include both organizational repercussions such as increased absenteeism and decreased job performance (Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly, 2002; Frone, Yardley, and Markel, 1997), and individual outcomes such as reduced life satisfaction and increased physical and psychological strain (Ford, Heinen, and Langkamer, 2007; Hammer, Saksvik, Nytrø, Torvatn, and Bayazit, 2004). The degree to which an organization's culture exhibits support for its employees' efforts to balance work and personal responsibilities can therefore be seen to be of paramount importance.

Work-home culture is defined as the assumptions, beliefs and values among organizational members regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and personal lives (Thompson, Beauvais and Lyness, 1999). This definition is consistent with existing conceptualizations of organizational culture as being rooted in values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organizational members (Denison, 1996). Three distinct components of work-home culture can be identified in the literature: organizational time demands, or expectations that employees prioritize work over family or personal responsibilities; negative career consequences associated with using 'family friendly' practices or otherwise devoting time to family or personal responsibilities; and managerial support and sensitivity to employees' family or personal responsibilities. Work-home culture is also conceptually similar to the construct of organizational support, in that it

can be viewed as a type of support provided by the organization (Jahn, Thompson, and Kopelman, 2003).

Organizational cultures supportive of work-home issues have been shown to impact a number of work- and family-related outcomes (Kinnunen, Mauno, Guerts, and Dikkers, 2005). Perceptions of work-home support have been linked to greater job satisfaction (Allen, 2001), increased organizational commitment (Lyness, Thompson, Francesco and Judiesch, 1999), and decreased turnover intentions (Thompson *et al*., 1999). Team members who perceive that management is supportive of family leave policies have been found to report lower levels of work stress and increased levels of family integrity (Kim, 2001), while work-home support from immediate supervisors has been associated with satisfaction with home life and increased family well-being (Clark, 2001).

Although organizational work-home culture has demonstrated effects on work-related stress and family well-being, its ability to influence individuals' overall health and well-being has been under-researched. Aside from Burke (2001), who found that female managers perceiving organizational values more supportive of work-personal life balance reported fewer psychosomatic symptoms and more positive emotional well-being, and Thompson and Prottas (2005), who showed that a supportive work-home culture was linked to lower levels of employee stress and depressive symptoms, little is known about the relationship between work-home culture and employee well-being.

Given the costs to organizations incurred by stress and health-related absenteeism, estimated at £11 billion per year by the Department of Trade and Industry (2000), greater knowledge of how organizations contribute to employees' well-being would be useful in minimizing this phenomenon and its associated expenses. This study endeavours to extend previous research by examining the impact of work-home culture on employee strain symptomology. There are three possible routes by which a relationship between

organizational work-home culture and employee strain may take place. First, work-home culture may predict employee strain directly. Second, the effect of work-home culture on strain may be mediated by work-home interference. Alternatively, work-home culture may moderate the relationship between work-home interference and employee strain. This paper will outline these three possibilities in order to generate hypotheses that can be tested empirically. A model depicting this combination of mediated and moderated relationships can be found in Figure 1.

This study will also investigate the presence of sex differences in the relationships among work-home culture, work-home interference, and employee strain. Previous research has found significant sex differences in both antecedents to and outcomes of work-home interference (e.g., Gignac, Kelloway, and Gottlieb, 1996; Higgins, Duxbury, and Johnson, 2000). In order to investigate these differences more thoroughly, it has been recommended that men and women be studied separately (Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, and Reilly, 1995; Parker and Hall, 1992), but most research to date neglects to differentiate between the sexes. There are, however, a handful of studies that have found some intriguing results with regard to sex differences in strain-based outcomes of work-home interference. Both Matsui, Ohsawa, and Onglatco (1995) and Nelson, Quick, Hitt, and Moesel (1990) found that work-home interference resulted in increased psychological strain only for the women in their samples. Beatty (1996) found a link between work interference with home and depression only for women with children. However, Parasuraman, Greenhaus, and Granrose (1992) uncovered an association between work-home interference and life stress that existed only for men. In order to shed more light on these results, the present study will treat men and women as separate sample groups when examining mediated relationships, and also use sex as a moderator when investigating moderated relationships amongst work-home interference, work-home culture, and strain.

Direct Relationship Between Work-Home Culture and Employee Strain

Research on organizational support provides both conceptual and empirical confirmation of a direct link between employees' perceptions of a supportive culture and individual strain. Organizational support theory posits that perceptions of organizational support meet employee needs for emotional support in the workplace (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Perceived organizational support is thought to reduce psychological and psychosomatic strain by indicating to employees that material aid and emotional support are available when needed to cope with high demands at work (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, and Fielding, 1993), and has been associated with reduced burnout and fewer somatic complaints (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, and Toth, 1997; Richardsen, Burke, and Mikkelsen, 1999).

Although general support offered by organizations or by organizational members differs from targeted work-home organizational support, it is logical to expect that an organizational culture supportive of work-home issues can help to directly reduce strain experienced by employees through the provision of helpful managers, sympathetic colleagues, and reasonable expectations concerning employees' work hours and priorities. This premise is supported by existing research in the field. Employees who perceive that their supervisors and co-workers are unsupportive of work-home concerns have reported increased stress levels (Thompson and Prottas, 2005), whereas those who perceive that their team managers facilitate the taking of family leave have reported reduced work stress (Kim, 2001). Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that instrumental organizational work-home support in the form of flexible scheduling had a direct, negative relationship with employees' somatic complaints (e.g., headaches, insomnia, sweaty palms). Managerial women who perceive that their employing organization's values are supportive of work-home balance have been found to report lower levels of work stress, fewer psychosomatic symptoms, and more positive emotional well-being (Burke, 2001), and family-supportive supervisor behaviours have been

associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and greater positive work-family affective spillover among employees (Hammer *et al*., 2009).

On the basis of these findings, it seems reasonable to suppose that the extent to which an organizational culture is supportive of work-home issues may contribute directly to employee strain. Employees who perceive organizational pressures to work long hours and to prioritise their jobs over their family or personal lives are likely to experience higher levels of strain. Those who conform to organizational time demands may suffer from role overload, an established job stressor, while those who do not conform to such time demands may still experience strain, as awareness of non-compliance with tacit organizational standards may function as a stressor. Perceptions that taking time off work to deal with personal or family concerns may negatively affect one's career prospects and incur the resentment of one's co-workers are also likely to act as a source of strain for employees. In contrast, managers who are supportive of work-home issues may help to ease strain by providing sympathy and understanding, by not penalizing an employee for his or her attempts to balance work and home responsibilities, or by providing instrumental assistance with this balancing act (such as permission to work flexible hours or to miss early-morning meetings).

Hypothesis 1a: There will be a direct, negative relationship between managerial support and levels of employee strain for men and women.

Hypothesis 1b: There will be a direct, positive relationship between organizational time demands / negative career consequences and levels of employee strain for men and women.

Mediated Relationship Between Work-Home Culture and Employee Strain

Another way in which organizational work-home culture may affect employee strain is through the mediating variable of interference between work and home. Work-home interference can be defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the demands of the work

role and the demands of the home role are mutually incompatible (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997), such that meeting demands in one domain (e.g., home) makes it difficult to meet demands in the other (e.g., work). Research has established the appropriateness of differentiating between work interference with home, in which work activities impede performance of family or other non-work roles, and home interference with work, in which life-role responsibilities hinder performance at work (Frone, Russell, and Cooper, 1992).

The effect of organizational work-home culture on employee strain may very well be mediated by interference between work and home. According to Frone *et al*.'s (1997) conceptual model of the work-family interface, supportive attitudes and behaviours from management and co-workers are likely to reduce the extent to which work interferes with home life, and this reduced interference contributes in turn to lower levels of family-related distress or dissatisfaction. The present study proposes to extend this theoretical support for a mediated relationship by arguing that supportive managers and co-workers may reduce employee levels of home interference with work, as well as those of work interference with home.

Existing research has identified other mediators in relationships among variables similar to the ones investigated in the present study. Thompson and Prottas (2005) found that perceived control mediated the relationship between work-home culture and employee stress levels, and Sonnentag, Kuttler and Fritz (2010) demonstrated that psychological detachment mediated the link between low work-home boundaries and emotional exhaustion. This paper argues that work-home interference encompasses many of the mechanisms by which work-home culture may impact strain, and is thus of primary interest when exploring a mediated relationship. For instance, instrumental support from an employee's immediate supervisor may lessen the employee's work interference with home, by providing increased flexibility or control over the employee's work schedule and tasks. Attitudes of upper management that

convey sympathy and understanding of work-life issues may also contribute to reduced work-home interference, through the creation of an organizational climate in which line managers are encouraged to be considerate of employees' work-life concerns and helpful in resolving them. For example, a manager who permits an employee to work from home, rather than taking a day's annual leave when he or she has a child home sick from school, may reduce home interference with work by reducing the time pressures inherent in falling behind on one's work tasks. Preoccupation with work when at home is one way in which work interference with home manifests (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985); this too may be reduced when the organizational work-home culture is supportive. These reductions in work-home interference may then lead to decreased levels of employee strain.

Employees who perceive that overt efforts to balance work and home responsibilities may result in diminished prospects for career progression, and be met with resentment from one's co-workers, may take less time away from work in order to avoid these negative sanctions. This may contribute to increased work interference with home. In addition, an employee who attempts to balance work and home demands in such a way as to maintain his or her regular level of "face time" at the workplace may find that this domination of work time and reduction of flexibility results in home responsibilities accumulating to a point where they produce higher levels of home interference with work. Organizational time demands, meanwhile, can evoke pressures that dominate the time of the employee and interfere with the fulfilment of responsibilities at home, creating work interference with home. Spending longer hours at work necessitates spending fewer hours at home, and might also result in fewer opportunities to deal with home-related demands. These responsibilities are then likely to build up and "spill over" into the work domain, creating home interference with work. Increased levels of interference between work and home may, in turn, contribute to higher levels of employee strain.

There is empirical evidence to support the influence of organizational work-home culture upon levels of work-home interference among employees. The prospect of negative career consequences for those making overt attempts to balance work and home responsibilities has been associated with increased work interference with home, as have organizational expectations for employees to work long hours, while supervisory work-home support has been related to lower levels of work interference with home (see Kinnunen *et al*., 2005, for a review). On the other hand, employees perceiving a work climate that encourages the sacrifice of family concerns in favour of work demands have reported higher levels of both work interference with home and home interference with work (Kossek, Colquitt, and Noe, 2001).

As a type of environmental stressor, work-home interference has been linked on many occasions to the outcome of employee strain. Both directions of interference have been connected with increased levels of psychosomatic strain symptomology, which includes such sensations as anxiety, fatigue, and depression, and physical complaints such as headaches, palpitations, and insomnia (see Eby *et al*., 2005, for a review).

Despite these demonstrated links between work-home culture and work-home interference, and between work-home interference and strain, few studies have investigated interference between work and home as a mediator of the potential relationship between work-home culture and employee well-being. Thomas and Ganster (1995) found an indirect relationship between supervisor work-home support and employees' somatic complaints, mediated by general interference between work and home; the more supportive the supervision, the less interference was experienced, which in turn was associated with fewer somatic complaints such as headaches, insomnia, and sweaty palms. Similarly, Mauno, Kinnunen and Pyykkö (2005) found that work interference with home partially mediated the impact of work-home culture on symptoms of distress among a portion of their sample, while

Peeters, Wattez, Demerouti and de Regt (2009) found that general interference between work and home mediated the link between an unsupportive work-home culture and employee burnout.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between organizational work-home culture and levels of employee strain will be mediated by work-home interference for men and women.

Moderated Relationship Between Work-Home Culture and Employee Strain

A third way in which work-home culture may influence employee strain is by acting as a coping resource and moderating the relationship between work-home interference and strain. Much of the psychological and organizational literature on coping methods has focused on the potential for social support to buffer the impact of stressors on strain (e.g., Orpen, 1992). Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) cognitive transactional model of stress posits that stress consists of three processes: primary appraisal is the process of perceiving a threat to oneself, secondary appraisal is the process of bringing to mind a potential response to the threat, and coping is the process of executing that response. In the work-home context, individuals may choose to seek support from the organization in order to eliminate the threat of work-home interference perceived during primary appraisal.

Empirical evidence for this moderated relationship have been mixed. Hypotheses concerning the moderating effect of social support on the relationship between work-home interference and strain were not supported by the findings of Frone *et al*. (1995) or Parasuraman *et al*. (1992). However, research by Mauno, Kinnunen, and Ruokolainen (2006) demonstrated that a supportive work-family climate buffered the negative effects of strain-based work interference with home on physical symptoms such as headache, backache, and palpitations. O'Driscoll *et al*. (2003) found that work-home related supervisor support moderated the relationship between work interference with home and strain, such that work interference with home led to more strain when support was low.

Perceptions of a supportive organizational work-home culture may influence the degree to which work-home interference results in higher levels of strain among employees. Both work interference with home and home interference with work may have fewer detrimental effects on employee strain when managers are perceived as being supportive of work-home issues. The assistance, both practical and emotional, that managers can render may lessen the degree to which intruding demands from one domain of life to the other affect personal experience of strain. For example, if an employee arrives late at work one morning due to a childcare emergency, a manager who is understanding and reassuring might reduce the extent to which the employee worries about missed meetings and falling behind on work tasks. In this way, the strain experienced as a result of home interference with work would be reduced, although the interference itself remains constant. Similarly, if an employee must travel on business and miss an important family gathering, sympathy from a manager and promises to ensure a similar conflict will not reoccur may reduce the strain arising from work interference with home. The interference itself may remain unaltered, but its effects on strain will be reduced.

Employees whose work and home responsibilities collide may also experience greater strain if they perceive that taking time off work to attend to demands from home will negatively impact their career and their relationships with co-workers. Employees perceiving a more supportive environment may experience less strain as a result of work-home interference, being safe in the knowledge that taking time away from work to manage responsibilities at home will not damage their career prospects.

In terms of organizational time demands, an employee whose work interferes with the fulfilment of responsibilities at home may experience additional strain if there are organizational pressures to work long hours and prioritise work above all other activities. These pressures would increase the overall amount of work demands and reduce levels of

well-being. When there is pressure to give precedence to work activities and to de-emphasize demands from other areas of life, an employee whose responsibilities at home interfere with the completion of work tasks might experience greater strain because he or she is not fitting in with the organizational norm. As outlined above, all three components of work-home culture may therefore influence the extent to which work-home interference affects employee strain.

Hypothesis 3a: The relationship between work-home interference and employee strain will be moderated by managerial support for men and women, in such a way that the relationship between interference and strain will be weaker in the presence of higher levels of managerial support.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between work-home interference and employee strain will be moderated by organizational time demands / negative career consequences for men and women, in such a way that the relationship between interference and strain will be stronger in the presence of higher levels of organizational time demands / negative career consequences.

Sex Differences in the Relationship Between Work-Home Culture and Employee Strain

According to gender role theory, social pressures encourage people to behave in ways consistent with their prescribed gender roles (Eagly, 1987), prompting individuals to internalize cultural expectations about their sex (Kidder, 2002). Given the gendered nature of the work-home interface, with men's primary domain traditionally seen as work, and women held primarily responsible for the home, it is reasonable to expect some sex differences in the relationship between work-home culture and employee strain. Despite evidence that men's participation may be growing in some areas of domestic work (Hill, 2005), the great majority of household work and childcare is still performed by women (Nordenmark, 2004; Scott, 2001). Employed women spend significantly more time in work and household activities combined than do men (Duxbury, Higgins, and Lee, 1994), report higher levels of work-home

interference (Kamenou, 2008), and are apt to report more psychological distress resulting from their combined roles of employment and marriage / parenthood (Nordenmark, 2002; Voydanoff and Donnelly, 1989). By internalizing these gender role expectations for greater participation in the home domain, employed women appear to be more susceptible to the negative impact of work-home issues. They may, in turn, be more susceptible to the resources provided by a supportive manager. There is a large body of empirical research demonstrating men's ambivalence toward contravening the norm for masculine self-sufficiency by seeking or accepting help when experiencing problems (see Addis and Mahalik, 2003), and studies have shown that social support may have a more protective effect against strain symptoms such as depression for women than for men (Kendler, Myers, and Prescott, 2005). For these reasons, managerial support may play a stronger role in predicting women's levels of strain, both directly and indirectly via work-home interference. Managerial support may also be more effective in alleviating the positive relationship between work-home interference and strain for women, rather than men.

In an earlier volume of this journal, Broadbridge and Hearn (2008) identified various ways in which the management of organizations is gendered. One of these was the valuing of organizations and paid work over work in the personal domain. Because men are subject to gender role expectations that they take on a "breadwinner" role that involves paid employment but little participation in family life, they have traditionally experienced work demands as dominant over home demands (Cornelius and Skinner, 2008), and suffered stronger penalties than women for not complying with work role expectations and for their efforts to accommodate family responsibilities (Butler and Skattebo, 2000; Powell, 1997). Studies of organizations in the USA and Australia reveal widespread employee impressions that using available work-home options would damage men's career prospects, more so than women's (Bittman, Hoffmann, and Thompson, 2004; Nord, Fox, Phoenix, and Viano, 2002).

The presence of organizational time demands and negative career consequences for employees who take leave to deal with personal responsibilities may therefore result in higher levels of strain for men, both directly and indirectly via work-home interference. These two elements of work-home culture may also exacerbate the relationship between work-home interference and strain for men more than for women.

Hypothesis 4a: The relationship between managerial support and employee strain will be stronger for women than for men.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between organizational time demands / negative career consequences and employee strain will be stronger for men than for women.

Hypothesis 5a: The relationship between managerial support and employee strain will be mediated more strongly by work-home interference for women than for men.

Hypothesis 5b: The relationship between organizational time demands / negative career consequences and employee strain will be mediated more strongly by work-home interference for men than for women.

Hypothesis 6a: The moderating effect of managerial support on the relationship between work-home interference and employee strain will be stronger for women than for men.

Hypothesis 6b: The moderating effect of organizational time demands / negative career consequences on the relationship between work-home interference and employee strain will be stronger for men than for women.

Method

Sample

Participants in this study were drawn from a local government in the south of England. Surveys were mailed out to all regular (i.e., not seasonal or temporary contract) employees. Two hundred and thirty-one surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 29%. Seven

surveys were excluded from the final analyses due to missing responses, generating an effective sample size of 224.

As Casper *et al*. (2007) make clear in their review of work-home research methods, studies of work-home interference disproportionately focus on parents of young children. Given demographic trends toward single-person households, increasing eldercare responsibilities, and involvement in community and volunteer activities (ONS, 2003, 2005), it is important that individuals with non-work commitments other than dependent children also be represented in the research literature. The present study therefore includes in its sample all employees of the target organization, not just those with dependent children.

The majority of respondents were women (62.3%). Participant ages ranged from 17 to 68, with an average age of just over 41 years. Sixty-nine men (82.1%) and 108 women (77.7%) reported living with a spouse or partner; of these, 58.3% of men and 71.2% of women were members of dual-earner households, where the spouse or partner was also employed. Sixty-one men (72.6%) and 79 women (56.8%) reported having children; the average age of the youngest child was 15.5 for men, and 13.6 for women. Ages ranged from 9.6 months to 34 years. Thirteen men (15.5%) and 20 women (14.4%) reported having caregiving responsibilities for adult dependents (other than children).

Measures

Strain symptomology was measured using Gottlieb, Kelloway, and Barham's (1998) ten-item scale. Items assessed the extent to which respondents had experienced anxiety, fatigue, depression and overall strain during the past six months (e.g., "How often have you felt that you carried your problems with you wherever you went?"). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they had experienced each sensation in the past six months on a seven-point scale ranging from "never" = 1 to "always" = 7 for each item. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .95.

For all items in each of the remaining scales used in this study, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7.

Organizational work-home culture was measured using Thompson *et al*.'s (1999) three-component scale. Items assessed the extent to which respondents perceived that managers in their organization were understanding of work-home issues (managerial support), that career progression in their organization was negatively affected by having personal or family responsibilities (negative career consequences), and that job success in their organization was dependent upon sacrificing personal time for work (organizational time demands). Sample items include "In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of personal or family-related needs" (managerial support); "Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take leave to care for newborn or adopted children" (negative career consequences); "Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their personal lives or families" (organizational time demands). Reliability alphas were .94 for organizational time demands, .77 for negative career consequences, and .91 for managerial support.

Work interference with home was measured using the six time-based and strain-based items from Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams's (2000) multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. The statements were modified in order to be applicable to respondents both with and without family responsibilities. For example, "I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities" was modified to read, "I have to miss family or social activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities". Items assessed the extent to which respondents experienced both time- and strain-based interference from the work to the home domain. The reliability alpha for this scale was .92.

Home interference with work was measured using the six time-based and strain-based items from Carlson *et al*.'s (2000) measure of work-family conflict. Again, items were modified in order to be applicable to respondents both with and without family responsibilities. Items assessed the extent to which respondents experienced both time- and strain-based interference from the home to the work domain (e.g., "Tension and anxiety from my personal or family life often weakens my ability to do my job"). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .84.

Measurement models

Before the hypotheses were tested, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the distinctiveness of the measures used in this study, using Amos software and maximum-likelihood estimation. Goodness of fit was interpreted using the comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and commonly accepted cutoff values (CFI < .90, NFI < .90, and RMSEA > .08) were used as indicative of poor fit (e.g., McDonald and Ho, 2002). A one-factor model, in which all items in all measures loaded on a common factor, was compared with the hypothesized six factor model in which strain, work interference with home, home interference with work, managerial support, negative career consequences, and organizational time demands loaded on distinct factors. This model produced better fit (χ^2 = 1256.56, df = 615; CFI = .90, NFI = .81, RMSEA = .07) than the one-factor model, and all factor loadings were significant, warranting the examination of the variables as distinct constructs.

To alleviate concerns about the potential for common method variance to account for relationships discovered amongst these variables, confirmatory factor analysis was also used to determine the prevalence of common method variance in the data. Using Harmon's single-factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003), the lack of fit of the single-factor measurement model can be interpreted to mean that common method variance was not

a sizeable problem. This test does have limitations, however, so an additional approach was taken: an examination of the results of adding a latent common methods factor to the hypothesized six-factor measurement model (Podsakoff *et al*., 2003). The potential increase in model fit obtainable by accounting for the common methods factor was explored, as well as the variance extracted by this common factor. The first examination of this model yielded a negative error variance for one of the items measuring organizational time demands, so the model was rerun with the associated error variance fixed to zero (Dillon, Kumar, and Mulani, 1987). The fit of this model was slightly superior to that of the hypothesized six-factor model (χ^2 = 1030.95, df = 578; CFI = .93, NFI = .85, RMSEA = .06), but the variance extracted by the common methods factor was only .20, which falls below the .50 cutoff that Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) suggest as indicating the presence of a latent factor representing the manifest indicators. Consequently, although it is possible that common method variance may be present in the data, it does not appear as though common methods bias was a serious issue hindering the satisfactory testing of our hypotheses.

Analysis

OLS regression analysis was used to test the model, using SPSS 16.0 software. Control variables were entered in step 1 of the equation, followed by work-home culture in step 2. In the third step, work interference with home and home interference with work were entered. The interaction terms were entered in the final fourth step, permitting the significance of the interactions to be determined after controlling for the main effects of the independent variables. The predictor variables were centred before forming interaction terms, in order to reduce the multicollinearity often associated with regression equations containing interaction terms (Aiken and West, 1991). Changes in R^2 were used to evaluate the ability of the interaction terms to explain variance beyond that accounted for by the main effects in the equation.

The control variables included were hours worked weekly, presence of children aged 16 and under in the respondent's household (present/absent, dummy-coded), and current use of at least one work-home option provided by the organization, such as flexitime or telework (use/non-use, dummy-coded). In previous research, these demographic variables have been established as important explanatory variables in their own right in terms of strain. Individuals with young children have been found more likely to show signs of psychological disturbance (Elliott and Huppert, 1991), and working long hours is a confirmed source of strain (Jex and Bliese, 1999). Employees using some form of flexible working offered by their employers have been found to report better psychological health than those not using such work-home options (Houston and Waumsley, 2003).

To test for mediation, the procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used, and the Aroian test conducted (MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer, 1995). For these analyses, men and women were treated as separate samples. In the Baron and Kenny procedure, three regression models are investigated. First, the mediator (work-home interference) is regressed on the independent variables (work-home culture); second, the dependent variable (strain) is regressed on the independent variables (work-home culture); and third, the dependent variable (strain) is regressed simultaneously on the independent (work-home culture) and mediator (work-home interference) variables.

Mediation is present if the following conditions hold true: the independent variable affects the mediator in the first equation; the independent variable affects the dependent variable in the second equation; and the mediator affects the dependent variable in the third equation. The effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second. Full mediation occurs if the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is in the equation, and partial mediation occurs if the

effect of the independent variable is smaller but significant when the mediator is in the equation.

With regard to moderation, significant interactions were probed using procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). The regression equation was restructured to represent the regression of employee strain on the independent variables at different levels of work-home culture. Low, medium, and high values of work-home culture were established (Cohen and Cohen, 1983) and entered into the transformed regression equation so as to calculate three regression equations. Low, medium, and high values of work-home culture were calculated as one standard deviation below the mean, the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean, respectively. T-tests were then performed on simple slopes of the equations to determine if they differed from zero. In addition, the Dawson and Richter (2006) test for differences between slopes was used to probe gender differences in significant three-way interactions.

Results

Descriptive statistics and direct effects

The means and standard deviations for each of the study variables are shown in Table 1, along with t-test results for differences between men and women in their average scores. With regard to work-home culture, men reported significantly higher levels of organizational time demands ($t = 2.09$, $p < .05$) and negative career consequences ($t = 1.98$, $p < .05$) than did women. Men also worked significantly longer hours than did women ($t = 3.68$, $p < .001$).

(Tables 1 and 2 about here)

Correlations among the variables are displayed in Table 2, and the results of the regression analyses are presented in Table 3. Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not supported. None of the work-home culture variables had a significant, direct relationship with strain when all other variables were present in the equation.

(Table 3 about here)

Indirect effects

The results of the mediation analyses are presented in Tables 4 and 5. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported; work interference with home fully mediated the effects of organizational time demands on strain for women, and partially mediated the effects of organizational time demands on strain for men. An Aroian test with the unstandardized coefficients and standard errors (MacKinnon *et al*., 1995) supported a significant indirect effect of organizational time demands on strain through work interference with home for women (Z score = 4.32, $p < .001$), and for men (Z score = 2.06, $p < .05$). Neither managerial support nor negative career consequences was mediated by either work interference with home, or home interference with work.

(Tables 4 and 5 about here)

Hypothesis 3a was partially supported; the hypothesized two-way interaction between work interference with home and managerial support was significant (β = -.16, $p < .05$). As depicted in Figure 2, simple slope analysis (Aiken and West, 1991) revealed that the relationship between work interference with home and employee strain was weaker in the presence of high levels of managerial support (one SD above the mean; β = .29, $p < .01$) than in the presence of low levels of managerial support (one SD below the mean; β = .65, $p < .001$).

(Figure 2 about here)

Managerial support did not moderate the link between home interference with work and strain. Organizational time demands and negative career consequences were not significant moderators of either direction of work-home interference, providing no support for Hypothesis 3b.

No support was found for Hypotheses 4a or 4b; there were no significant interactions between sex and work-home culture. Hypothesis 5a, predicting a stronger mediated relationship between managerial support and strain for women than for men, was not supported. Hypothesis 5b was not supported either, as the mediated relationship between organizational time demands and strain was stronger for women, rather than for men as was predicted (see results for Hypothesis 2 above). For women, the indirect effect of organizational time demands on strain, (.57)(.55), = .31, and its direct effect is .30, yielding a total effect coefficient of .61. Accordingly, .31/.61, 51% of the effect of organizational time demands on strain is mediated through work interference with home, and .30/.61 = 49% is direct. For men, 28% of the effect of organizational time demands on strain is mediated by work interference with home, and 72% is direct. These direct effects may, of course, include the effects of mediators not included in the present model.

Hypothesis 6a was partially supported. A significant three-way interaction predicting strain was found among sex, managerial support, and work interference with home (β = -.17, p < .05), such that the positive relationship between work interference with home and strain was weaker in the presence of high managerial support more so for women than for men (see Figure 3). The Dawson and Richter (2006) test revealed a significant difference between the slopes for high managerial support women and low managerial support women (t = - 2.71, p < .01), whereas the difference between the slopes for high managerial support men and low managerial support men was not significant. There was no significant three-way interaction involving sex, managerial support, and home interference with work.

(Figure 3 about here)

Hypothesis 6b was also partially supported. Although there were no significant three-way interactions involving negative career consequences, significant interactions were found among sex, organizational time demands, and both work interference with home (β = .18, p <

.05) and home interference with work (β = -.21, $p < .05$). As predicted, the positive relationship between work interference with home and strain was stronger in the presence of high organizational time demands more so for men than for women, as depicted in Figure 4. The Dawson and Richter (2006) test demonstrated a significant difference in the predicted direction between the slopes for high organizational time demands men and low organizational time demands men (t = 1.92, $p < .05$), but not for high organizational time demands women and low organizational time demands women. Contrary to predictions, however, there was a stronger link between home interference with work and strain for women, rather than men, when organizational time demands were high (see Figure 5). The difference between the slopes for high organizational time demands women and low organizational time demands women was significant in the hypothesized direction (t = 1.65, $p < .05$), whereas that for high organizational time demands men and low organizational time demands men was not.

(Figures 4 and 5 about here)

Discussion

The aim of this study was to determine how work-home culture influences employee well-being, and whether sex differences exist in the relationships between these variables. To do so, a model with a mix of mediated and moderated relationships was tested. Findings indicate that an organization's support for work-home issues has a significant impact on employees' well-being. This effect takes place indirectly for women, by influencing their level of work-home interference, and operates both directly and indirectly for men. Different types of organizational work-home support were also found to be effective for women compared to men.

Some of the study's findings are consistent with previous research, while others extend knowledge in the field. The study extends previous research in several ways: by

investigating all three possible routes by which work-home culture may influence employee strain; by demonstrating that work interference with home mediates the relationship between one of the components of work-home culture – organizational time demands – and strain; by showing that organizational time demands has a moderating influence on the link between work-home interference and strain; and by revealing sex differences in these relationships.

Results indicate that for the employees in this study, work-home culture is, largely, indirectly rather than directly related to strain. The effect of organizational time demands on strain symptomology was fully mediated by work interference with home for women, and partially mediated for men. For the participants in this study, the degree to which organizational norms demand that employees subjugate their personal lives to their work responsibilities influenced the amount of work interference with home experienced, which in turn predicted increased levels of psychosomatic symptoms such as anxiety, fatigue, and depression. Contrary to predictions, this mediated relationship was stronger for women than for men. Given that society continues to emphasize women's responsibilities as primary caretakers of home and family, there is a certain logic to the idea that for women, the route to strain from organizational time demands would involve a diminished ability to deal with home-related demands. For men, who are subject to greater societal expectations to prioritize the work role, it makes sense that this type of pressure from the organization renders them more vulnerable to reduced levels of well-being directly, in addition to increased levels of work interference with home.

In addition to the mediation effects described above, evidence for moderation was also found. Women reporting high levels of managerial support were less likely to experience strain as a result of work interference with home than were women reporting lower levels of support. This finding supports previous research by O'Driscoll *et al*. (2003), who found that the effect of work interference with home on psychological strain was moderated by work-

home related supervisor support. Managers who offer emotional and/or instrumental support for their employees' work-home concerns appear able to reduce the extent to which their subordinates – at least, their female subordinates - suffer strain arising from the interference of work demands with their responsibilities at home. An employee whose long work hours are interfering with her ability to spend time with friends or family is liable to experience less strain when management appears supportive and willing to help than when management is perceived as uncaring and not interested in employees' lives beyond the workplace. This effect did not take place for men, suggesting that they are less responsive to this type of support. This is perhaps due to gender norms stipulating independence for men, and discouraging them from seeking or accepting assistance from others (Helgeson, 2005).

Organizational time demands moderated the links between work interference with home and employee strain for men, and between home interference with work and strain for women. Under conditions of low organizational time demands, there was virtually no relationship between work interference with home and strain for men. A significant, positive relationship between interference and strain was present only under conditions of high organizational time demands. For women, the association between work interference with home and strain was positive regardless of organizational time demands. This finding adds another dimension to the literature on men and work-home culture. We know that men perceive higher levels of organizational time demands, and that they are subject to stricter sanctions for not complying with them (Beauregard, 2006; Powell, 1997). Now we also see that organizational time demands have the power to regulate some of the negative repercussions of work interference with home that men experience. When time demands are low, even though work hours themselves may remain high, men will not experience strain as a result of their work commitments interfering with their personal lives.

For women, a different relationship was found with regard to organizational time demands and home interference with work. When organizational time demands were high, a significant, positive relationship between interference and strain was present. Under conditions of low organizational time demands, women experienced decreasing amounts of strain as home interference with work increased. We can interpret this result using the conservation of resources theory of stress (Hobfoll, 1989), which posits that interference between work and home results in stress (or strain) because valued resources are lost in the process of balancing demands from both domains (Grandey and Cropanzano, 1999). Individuals with greater resources are more capable of resource gain, while those with fewer resources are more vulnerable to resource loss (Hobfoll, 2001). In support of this proposition, previous research has found that women in possession of at least one type of individual resource (such as spousal support, or self-control skills) experienced less work-home interference than women with no such resources (Rosenbaum and Cohen, 1999). In the present study, women with access to the resource of low levels of organizational time demands appear less susceptible to some of the negative repercussions of home interference with work; this resource appears to act as a buffer against the outcome of strain.

The question remains, why was this moderated relationship between home interference with work and strain not found for men? The results of this study show that organizational time demands disproportionately affect men. One possible explanation derives from the fact that, as discussed previously, women tend to have more responsibility than men do for dealing with home-related demands (Nordenmark, 2004). When the employing organization pressures women to spend more time in the work role, this may render women less likely to be able to manage home demands while simultaneously living up to the organization's expectations. Women are thus "stuck between a rock and a hard place" – caught between organizational expectations for their time, and societal expectations for

priority given to the home role. Men may be unlikely to feel these competing pressures as keenly, as there is less of a disconnect between organizational and societal expectations of their primary role - both emphasize men's role as paid workers. Hence, the effect of organizational time demands on the link between home interference with work and strain would not be as strong for men as it is for women.

Management implications

The results of this study highlight the link between work-home interference and well-being, demonstrating a strong positive relationship between interference and strain. The deleterious effects of strain on employee job performance are well-known, and include increased absenteeism and turnover intentions, as well as reduced productivity (e.g., Arsenault and Dolan, 1983; O'Driscoll and Beehr, 1994; Veloutsou and Panigyrakis, 2004). It is, therefore, clearly in management's interest to initiate efforts to reduce the work-home interference, and thereby the strain, of their workforce. While the implementation of work-home options such as flexible working hours, childcare and eldercare referral services, and teleworking has been linked to lower levels of work-home interference, absenteeism, and turnover intentions (Anderson *et al*., 2002; Dalton and Mesch, 1990; Thompson *et al*., 1999), it is widely acknowledged that the mere availability of options is not sufficient to diminish the detrimental outcomes of interference to a large degree. The findings of the present study, in which a strong link was established between interference and strain despite controlling for the study participants' use of work-home options, supports this view. The development of an organizational culture supportive of work-home balance is necessary for organizations to fully reap the benefits of their work-home options and alleviate work-home interference (see Beauregard and Henry, 2009, for a review).

In this study, interference has been shown to increase when employees perceive that their co-workers, superiors, and the organization in general expect them to put in long hours

and assign priority to work over home in order to progress in their careers. Management of such expectations is an area in which managers can and should play a key role. Long hours and an emphasis on presenteeism is generally thought to be unrelated to productivity, and may even be detrimental to employee performance (Simpson, 2002). Increasing awareness of unreasonable expectations among management and staff and addressing the potentially negative consequences of taking leave for personal reasons could contribute to a shift in workplace culture to acknowledge the importance of employees' family and non-work roles. This culture change is overdue and entirely necessary should managers wish to reduce levels of work-home interference amongst their employees. Making a special effort to encourage men in their efforts to balance work and home demands may help to reduce some of the sex differences identified in this study, and create a more level playing field, as recommended by Cornelius and Skinner (2008) in an earlier volume of this journal.

The knowledge that managerial work-home support can work to reduce the amount of strain experienced by employees as a result of work interference with home may also lend itself to practical initiatives. Assessment of managers' work-home awareness and effectiveness in rendering assistance to affected employees could be incorporated into the performance appraisal process, as a means of strengthening management incentive to work with employees towards a solution to the problem of interference. Increased managerial support for work-home issues may then have a "top-down" effect on improving staff attitudes towards employees taking time off for personal or family reasons. Measures to ensure that absent employees' workloads are not routinely reallocated to remaining employees without some form of compensation or recognition (e.g., extra vacation days) may also help to eradicate co-worker resentment toward those struggling to balance competing work and home demands.

Limitations and Future Research

Some limitations to the present study should be noted. The cross-sectional design of the study does not allow for conclusions regarding causality. It is possible that an employee's experience of work-home interference may result in the conclusion that his or her employing organization is unsupportive of work-home issues, or that strain contributes to employee levels of work-home interference. Future research employing a longitudinal design would be better placed to assess issues of directionality, and research collecting multi-source data would be better placed to avoid the potential for common method bias associated with the use of a single data source, such as the self-report questionnaires employed by the present study.

None of the interactions explained a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable; a larger sample size may have produced better results, and would also help to ensure greater accuracy and generalizability of results in future, as would a higher response rate than that obtained by the present study. The average age of the youngest child for participants in this study was in the early teens; respondents with younger families may have different experiences balancing work and home responsibilities, which may have generated different findings.

This study's findings regarding the moderating role of work-home culture in the relationship between work-home interference and strain generate a number of research questions. Might other coping resources, such as scheduling activities in one domain to accommodate demands in the other, also influence the degree to which interference between work and home affects employee strain? Do elements of work-home culture moderate the link between work-home interference and other organizational outcomes, such as commitment or workplace deviance? Research investigating group or organization level outcomes such as these may wish to treat work-home culture as a group level variable, and assess the level of agreement among respondents in a particular work group or organization, rather than view

perceptions of work-home culture as an individual level variable as done in the present study (and in the preponderance of work-life balance research). Examining gender differences in dual-earner couples at the level of the couple may also yield revealing findings concerning cross-over effects of organizational support on work-home interference and strain.

Because the respondent sample was composed entirely of public sector employees, it is a matter of debate as to whether the findings obtained can be generalized to other populations, such as individuals employed in the private sector. A number of differences have been shown to exist between public sector and private sector employees with regard to expectations of and satisfaction with work-home interference. For instance, compared to their counterparts in the private sector, public sector workers have been found to report higher levels of stress, be more critical of their organisations, have less trust and confidence in their senior managers, and perceive less employer fulfilment of the psychological contract with regard to work-life balance promises (CIPD, 2006; Willemab, De Vosc, and Buelens, 2010). While public sector workers report greater levels of satisfaction with their working hours, displaying a preference for trading off work challenge and pay in exchange for reduced work-home interference, they do not report greater levels of organisational assistance with work-home interference than do those employed in the private sector (Buelens and Van den Broeck, 2007; CIPD, 2006; Ipsos MORI, 2006). These differences may influence the extent to which the relationships among variables found in this study are applicable to employees of private sector organizations.

It is worth noting, however, that while this sample of UK public sector employees may be quite specific, these employees differ in age, socio-economic status, intelligence, hardiness, and so on. The relationships among the variables tested can therefore be presumed to exist despite such differences among the survey respondents, rendering generalizability somewhat less of a problem (Cook and Campbell, 1979). Still, future research comparing

public to private sector employees may reveal differences in the way each responds to organizational work-home culture, and thus yield meaningful implications for how organizations in each sector should provide and communicate work-home support.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Strain, Work-Home Culture, and Work-Home Interference variables

	Men (n=84)		Women (n=140)		
Measure	M	SD	M	SD	*t*(222)
Strain	4.09	1.24	4.09	1.03	-0.01
Work-home culture: Organizational time demands	4.31	1.74	3.80	1.76	2.09*
Work-home culture: Negative career consequences	3.57	1.06	3.28	1.05	1.98*
Work-home culture: Managerial support	4.34	1.14	4.56	1.21	-1.33
Work interference with home	4.25	1.58	3.84	1.65	1.85
Home interference with work	2.22	1.00	2.20	1.00	0.10
Hours worked weekly	41.27	6.46	36.69	10.23	3.68***
Presence of young children in household	0.35	0.48	0.32	0.47	0.33
Use of work-home options	0.20	0.40	0.44	0.50	-3.72***

Note. $N = 224$.
* $p < .05$.
*** $p < .001$.

Table 2

Intercorrelations among Strain, Work-Home Culture, and Work-Home Interference variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Strain	-	*.33***	*.31***	*-.20**	*.56***	*.35***	*.13*	*.16*	*.12*
2. Work-home culture: Organizational time demands	.41***	-	*.24***	*-.58****	*.72****	*.13*	*.42****	*.01*	*-.29****
3. Work-home culture: Negative career consequences	.00	.05	-	*-.23***	*.26***	*.16*	*-.01*	*.00*	*.00*
4. Work-home culture: Managerial support	-.35***	-.69***	.01	-	*-.50****	*-.07*	*-.31****	*-.02*	*.17*
5. Work interference with home	.50***	.56***	.06	-.46***	-	*.21**	*.43****	*.06*	*-.16*
6. Home interference with work	.26*	-.02	-.01	.05	.18	-	*-.15*	*.12*	*.04*
7. Hours worked weekly	.09	.32**	.05	-.12	.39***	.06	-	*-.22***	*-.27***
8. Presence of young children in household	.21	.11	-.17	-.11	.20	.16	.20	-	*.10*
9. Use of work-home options	.05	-.25*	.01	.21	.09	.24*	.01	.01	-

Note. $N = 224$.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.
*** $p < .001$.

The bottom left diagonal contains correlation coefficients for the male sample, while the upper right diagonal contains correlation coefficients (in italics) for the female sample.

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression Results Predicting Strain for Men and Women

	Strain				
Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Sex	.03	.04	.05	.04	.08
Hours worked weekly	.16*	.02	-.06	-.05	-.03
Presence of young children in household	.19**	.16*	.09	.08	.09
Use of work-home options	.11	.20**	.13*	.15*	.14*
Work-home culture:					
Organizational time demands (OTD)		.35***	.09	.06	.10
Negative career consequences (NCC)		.13*	.07	.09	.08
Managerial support (MS)		-.06	-.02	.05	.07
Work interference with home (WIH)			.44***	.48***	.49***
Home interference with work (HIW)			.19**	.19**	.17**
WIH x OTD				-.01	.04
WIH x NCC				.00	-.01
WIH x MS				-.16*	-.09
HIW x OTD				.08	.10
HIW x NCC				-.05	-.07
HIW x MS				.08	.06
Sex x WIH				.10	.15
Sex x HIW				-.01	-.06
Sex x OTD				-.11	-.12
Sex x NCC				.06	.08
Sex x MS				.07	.09
Sex x WIH x OTD					-.21*
Sex x WIH x NCC					.02
Sex x WIH x MS					-.17*
Sex x HIW x OTD					.18*
Sex x HIW x NCC					.02
Sex x HIW x MS					.06
F	3.55**	8.14***	13.17***	6.93***	5.73***
△F	3.55**	13.42***	24.44***	1.52	1.44
$\triangle R^2$	.06**	.15***	.15***	.05	.03
Adjusted R^2	.05**	.19***	.34***	.35***	.36***

Note. $N = 224$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Results Predicting Mediating Role of Work-Home Interference for Men

	Work interference with home		Home interference with work		Strain		
Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Hours worked weekly	.37***	.21*	.03	.02	.05	.02	-.16
Presence of young children in household	.13	.10	.15	.15	.20†	.27	.11
Use of work-home options	.08	.23*	.24*	.25*	.05	.32	.04
Work-home culture:							
Organizational time demands (OTD)		.43***		.06		.38*	.22
Negative career consequences (NCC)		.05		.01		.02	.00
Managerial support (MS)		-.18		.05		-.11	-.06
Work interference with home (WIH)	-	-	-	-			.35**
Home interference with work (HIW)	-	-	-	-			.19
F	5.72***	10.53***	2.43	1.20	1.36	3.81**	4.87***
△F	5.72***	12.78***	2.43	0.05	1.36	6.01***	6.42**
$\triangle R^2$	.18***	.28***	.08†	.00	.05	.18***	.11**
Adjusted R^2	.15***	.41***	.05	.01	.01	.17**	.24***

Note. $N = 84$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Results Predicting Mediating Role of Work-Home Interference for Women

	Work interference with home		Home interference with work		Strain		
Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Hours worked weekly	.45***	.19**	-.13	-.21*	.22*	.10	.05
Presence of young children in household	.16*	.08	.09	.07	.19*	.16*	.10
Use of work-home options	-.07	.06	.00	.04	.16	.22**	.18*
Work-home culture:							
Organizational time demands (OTD)		.57***		.20		.30**	-.05
Negative career consequences (NCC)		.10†		.11		.25**	.17*
Managerial support (MS)		-.11		.00		.01	.07
Work interference with home (WIH)	-	-	-	-			.55***
Home interference with work (HIW)	-	-	-	-			.22**
F	11.68***	27.35***	1.37	1.97	3.79*	6.84***	12.88***
△F	11.68***	34.15***	1.37	2.51	3.79*	9.17***	23.73***
$\triangle R^2$	.21***	.35***	.03	.05	.08*	.16***	.21***
Adjusted R^2	.19***	.54***	.01	.04	.06*	.21***	.42***

Note. $N = 140$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 1. Model of hypothesized relationships

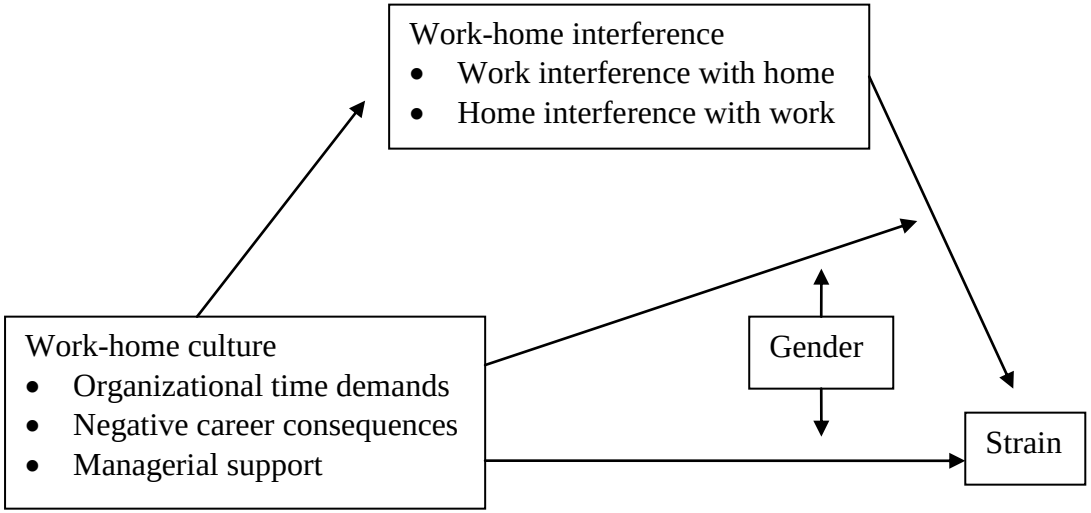

Figure 2. Strain as a function of work interference with home and level of managerial support.

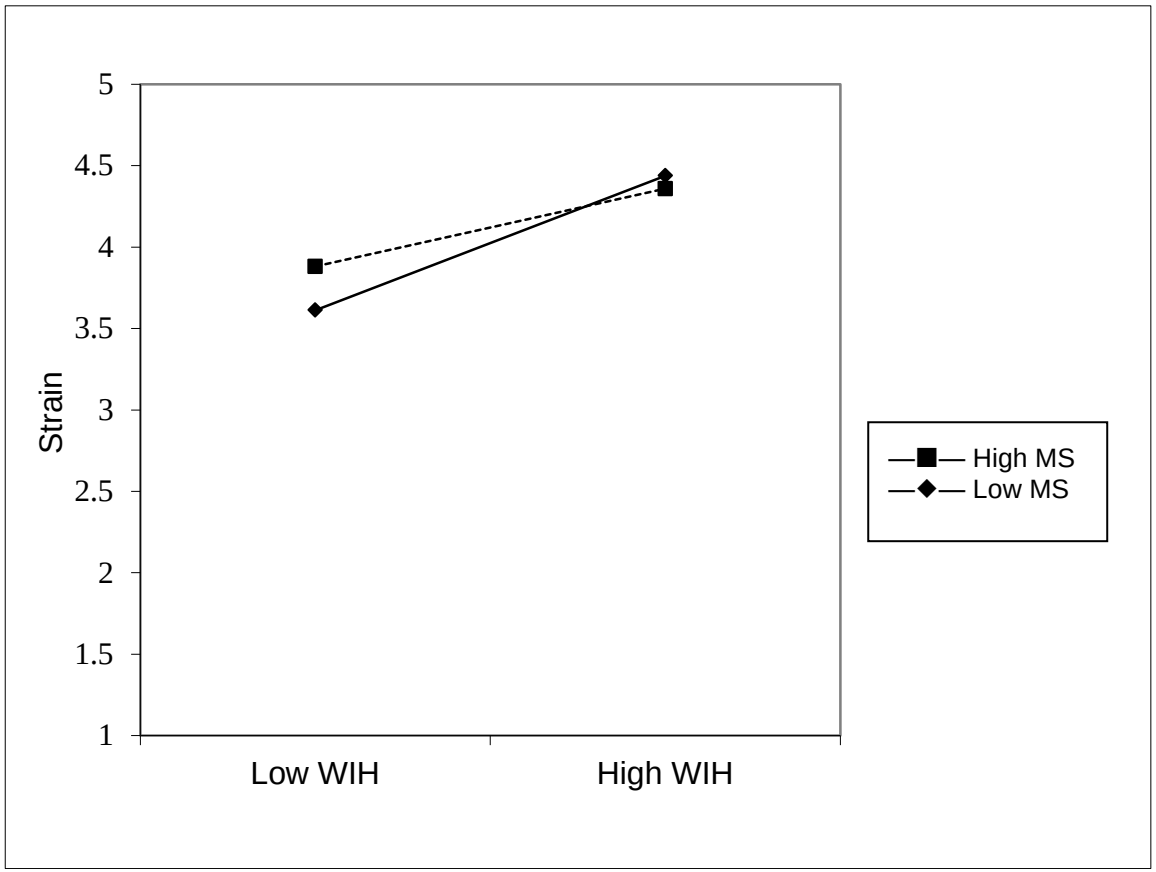

Figure 3. Strain as a function of sex, work interference with home, and managerial support.

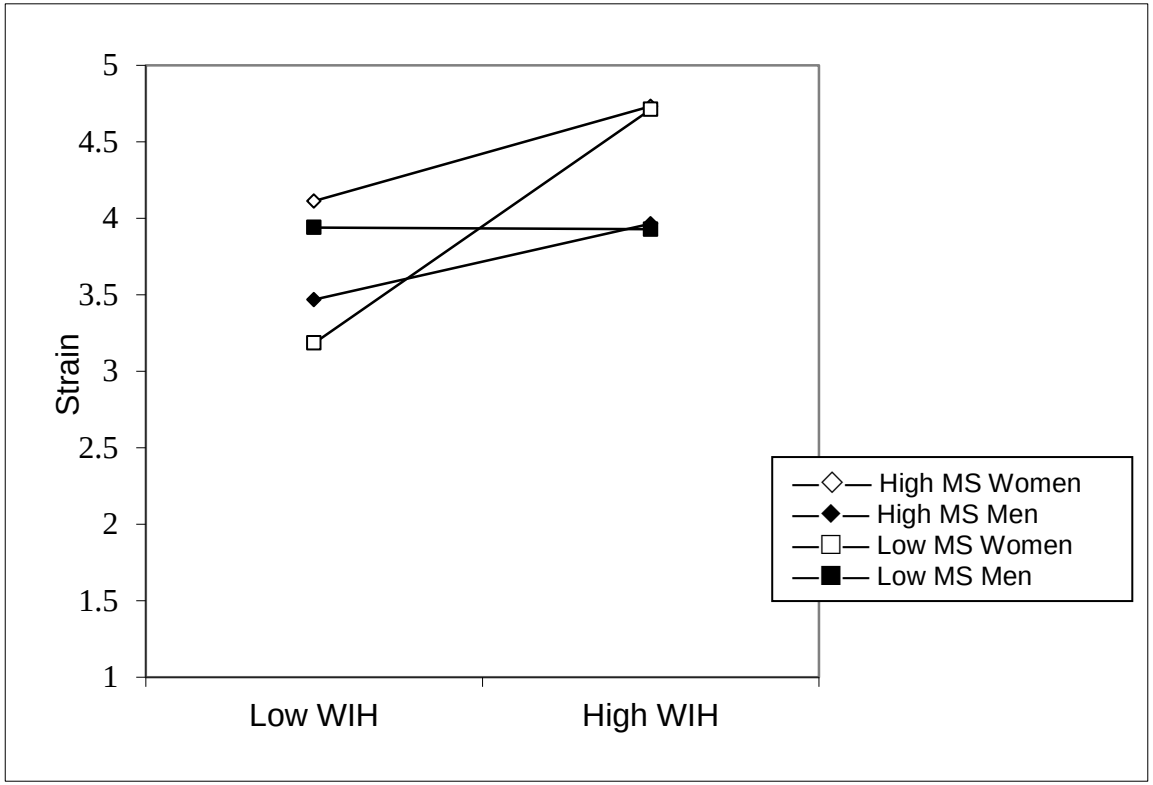

Figure 4. Strain as a function of sex, work interference with home, and organizational time demands.

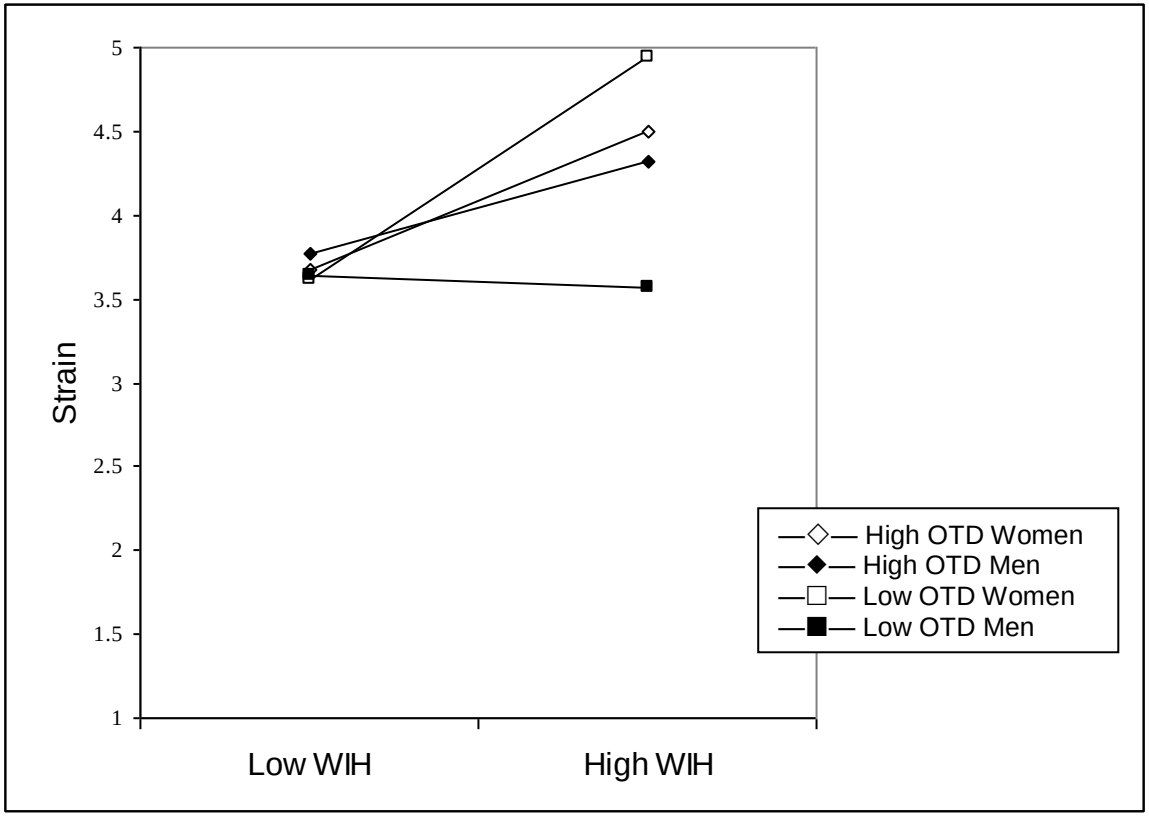

Figure 5. Strain as a function of sex, home interference with work, and organizational time demands.